



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Conservationists' perspectives on poverty: an empirical study

Citation for published version:

Fisher, J 2020, 'Conservationists' perspectives on poverty: an empirical study', *People and Nature*, vol. 31, no. 7. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pan3.10098>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1002/pan3.10098](https://doi.org/10.1002/pan3.10098)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Published In:

People and Nature

Publisher Rights Statement:

© 2020 The Authors. People and Nature published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of British Ecological Society

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy


The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



RESEARCH ARTICLE

PEOPLE
NATUREBRITISH
ECOLOGICAL
SOCIETY

Conservationists' perspectives on poverty: An empirical study

Janet A. Fisher¹  | Hari Dhungana² | Janine Duffy¹ | Jun He³ | Mirna Inturias⁴ | Ina Lehmann⁵ | Adrian Martin⁶ | David M. Mwayafu⁷ | Iokiñe Rodríguez⁶ | Helen Schneider⁸

¹School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK; ²Faculty of Management and Law, Nepal Open University, Lalitpur, Nepal; ³National Centre for Borderland Ethnic Studies in Southwest China, Yunnan University, Kunming, China; ⁴NUR University, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Santa Cruz, Bolivia; ⁵German Development Institute/Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (DIE), Bonn, Germany; ⁶Global Environmental Justice Group, School of International Development, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK; ⁷Uganda Coalition for Sustainable Development, Kampala, Uganda and ⁸Fauna & Flora International, Cambridge, UK

Correspondence

Janet A. Fisher

Email: janet.fisher@ed.ac.uk

Funding information

Ecosystem Services for Poverty Alleviation (ESPA), Grant/Award Number: NE/M007103/1; UK Department for International Development; UK Economic and Social Research Council; UK Natural Environment Research Council

Handling Editor: Nibedita Mukherjee**Abstract**

1. Biodiversity conservation interventions have long confronted challenges of human poverty. The ethical foundations of international conservation, including conservation's relationship with poverty, are currently being interrogated in animated debates about the future of conservation. However, while some commentary exists, empirical analysis of conservation practitioner perspectives on poverty, and their ethical justification, has been lacking thus far.
2. We used Q methodology complemented by more detailed qualitative analysis to examine empirically perspectives on poverty and conservation within the conservation movement, and compare these empirical discourses to positions within the literature. We sampled conservation practitioners in western headquartered organizations, and in Bolivia, China, Nepal and Uganda, thereby giving indications of these perspectives in Latin America, Asia and Africa.
3. While there are some elements of consensus, for instance the principle that the poor should not shoulder the costs of conserving a global public good, the three elicited discourses diverge in a number of ways. Anthropocentrism and ecocentrism differentiate the perspectives, but beyond this, there are two distinct framings of poverty which conservation practitioners variously adhere to.
4. The first prioritizes welfare, needs and sufficientarianism, and is more strongly associated with the China, Nepal and Uganda case studies. The second framing of poverty focuses much more on the need for 'do no harm' principles and safeguards, and follows an internationalized human rights-oriented discourse.
5. There are also important distinctions between discourses about whether poverty is characterized as a driver of degradation, or more emphasis is placed on over-consumption and affluence in perpetuating conservation threats. This dimension

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

© 2020 The Authors. *People and Nature* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of British Ecological Society

particularly illuminates shifts in thinking in the 30 or so years since the Brundtland report, and reflecting new global realities.

6. This analysis serves to update, parse and clarify differing perspectives on poverty within the conservation, and broader environmental movement, to illuminate consensual aspects between perspectives, and reveal where critical differences remain.

KEYWORDS

conservation organizations, discourse analysis, poverty, Q methodology

1 | INTRODUCTION

The ethical foundations of conservation are under scrutiny. This is evident in the animated so-called 'new conservation' (Holmes, Sandbrook, & Fisher, 2017; Kareiva & Marvier, 2012; Soule, 2013), and the Half Earth/Whole Earth debates (Büscher et al., 2017; Wilson, 2016). This paper interrogates contemporary debates about one of the most ethically urgent issues that intersect with conservation: human well-being and its converse, poverty (Adams et al., 2004; Howe, Corbera, Vira, Brockington, & Adams, 2018; Lehmann, Martin, & Fisher, 2018). Conservation has long confronted poverty because of the spatial intersection at a global scale of biodiversity and of human development challenges, noted in Fisher and Christopher (2007), and described by E. O. Wilson as an 'awful symmetry' (Wilson, 1992, p. 260). Until relatively recently, mainstream sustainable development thinking considered poverty as a chief cause of environmental degradation, and hence appropriate target of conservation (Duraiappah, 1998). However, social scientists have also documented how conservation benefits tend to accrue to the global community, while the disbenefits are localized and can exacerbate poverty, through displacement or restricted access to natural resources associated with protected areas (e.g. Brockington & Igoe, 2006). Brockington (2009) therefore argues that we should see conservation processes as spreading fortune and, crucially, misfortune around the landscape. The global political economy of conservation makes social impacts particularly contested; the conservation movement had a colonial genesis (Adams, 2004; Grove, 1995), and there are continuing legitimacy questions raised by the influence of conservation organizations headquartered in wealthy countries with the power to shape the relations between society and nature in poorer places (Chapin, 2004; MacDonald, 2008). Hence, the conservation/poverty nexus forms an arena of competing imperatives and obligations towards human and non-human nature, and the resulting trade-offs are among the most dramatic, or 'tragic' (Martin, 2017), and therefore contested and debated, within the broader field of environment and development.

The 1987 World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, or Brundtland report) had a wide remit, but was particularly influential in framing linkages between poverty and conservation. Indeed, it is considered so influential that Duraiappah (1998)

described it as a 'blueprint', and it dominated how international environment and development fora considered poverty at least through the 1990s. Poverty was characterized as a fundamental threat to sustainability and a central driver of resource degradation; 'poor and hungry' people were portrayed as driven by survival to overexploit and degrade resources (WCED, 1987, p. 28). The logic presented by Brundtland and institutionalized at the 1992 Earth Summit was that if poverty was to be addressed, instrumental benefits could accrue for conservation. Developments in the policy realm continued to shape these debates through the 2000s. The 2010 biodiversity target adopted in 2002 by the 7th Conference of Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity emphasized poverty reduction, albeit in the target's less quoted second phrase: 'to achieve by 2010 a significant reduction of the current rate of biodiversity loss at the global, regional and national level *as a contribution to poverty alleviation and to the benefit of all life on Earth*' (<https://www.cbd.int/2010-target/>). Similarly, the 2003 World Parks Congress was formative, with the Durban Accord offering a new paradigm for protected areas which sought to integrate conservation goals with the interests of all affected people (Roe, 2008). More concretely, the Durban Action Plan developed targets for protected areas to strive to alleviate poverty and in no case exacerbate poverty, and committed that all existing and future protected areas be required to comply with the rights of indigenous and mobile peoples and local communities (IUCN, 2003, in Roe, 2008). Concurrently, in an article taken very seriously within the movement, Chapin (2004) attacked the social impacts and human rights records of a number of the prominent, western headquartered conservation NGOs. These developments in the 2000s led to a moment of reckoning regarding conservation's social impacts and the exacerbation of poverty. The establishment of the Conservation Initiative on Human Rights (CIHR: <http://www.thecihr.org/>), a network of organizations integrating rights-based approaches in conservation, was in many ways attributable to these developments through the 2000s, taking impetus from the Durban Congress (CIHR, 2014). Hence, the instrumental logic of the Brundtland report yielded to a more normative logic for conservation to take account of poverty through the 2000s. In contrast also to the Brundtland

logic which conceptualized strong alignment between action on conservation and poverty alleviation, there developed increasing recognition of trade-offs and hard choices between these goals (McShane et al., 2010). The upshot of all of these developments, however, was that it became the norm for conservation organizations to seek to engage with matters associated with poverty for both ethical and pragmatic reasons (Walpole & Wilder, 2008).

Without necessarily denying the linkages drawn above, a related but distinct debate continued during the 2000s as to whether it was appropriate or effective for conservationists to attempt to address poverty issues, and some argued that this might detract from organizational missions (e.g. Sanderson & Redford, 2003), and core conservation activities (Terborgh, 1999). In this perspective, poverty and conservation are characterized as separate goals (Robinson, 2004). This mirrors the Tinbergen principle in economics which advocates one policy instrument per policy target (Klein, 2004). Redford, Levy, Sanderson, and de Sherbinin (2008) argue that there is actually very little spatial coincidence of global poverty hotspots with biodiversity in 'wild' areas (as a result of low density of poverty), and thus a genuine focus on addressing poverty would detract substantially from the core mission of conservation.

Effectively capturing a number of the positions described above, Adams et al. (2004) develop an influential typology of the different perspectives on relationships between poverty and conservation, which forms a central reference point for this paper. It is worthy of note, however, that this typology was derived from literature and deep knowledge of the field, rather than with reference to primary empirical material:

1. The first position considers that 'poverty and conservation are separate policy realms' (p. 1147).
2. The second position considers that 'poverty is a critical constraint on conservation' (p. 1147). This is the Brundtland position described above, effectively an instrumental argument.
3. The third position takes a normative stance that 'conservation should not compromise poverty reduction' (p. 1147). This is a manifestation of the 'do no harm' principle.
4. The fourth position considers that 'poverty reduction depends on living resource conservation' (p. 1148); in other words, this reverses the causal Brundtland logic and postulates that environmental degradation results in poverty; therefore, conservation can be promoted on the basis of supporting livelihoods. This position would tend to prioritize harvestable resources above species- or biodiversity-conservation (Adams et al., 2004; Howe et al., 2018). There are parallels between this position and the 'environmentalism of the poor', ideas associated with Guha and Martínez-Alier (1997; Martínez-Alier, 2002) that the poor have a very considerable stake in the responsible management of the environment, for livelihood considerations.

The transitions in thinking we have traced through the literature constitute an anthropocentric turn seen more broadly in

environmental management imperatives, but especially noticeable in conservation because of a stronger tradition of ecocentric protectionism. Conservation is increasingly justified through people-centred rationales, and attempted through people-centred approaches (Mace, 2014). The contemporary 'new conservation' debates turn on a hinge of whether conservation should be anthropocentric (Holmes et al., 2017), and Sandbrook, Fisher, Holmes, Luque-Lora, and Keane (2019) find that 94.7% of a global sample of 9,264 conservationists are in favour of people-centred conservation. The mission and public policy statements of most international conservation organizations show increasing attention to local livelihood issues, indigenous rights and poverty (Roe, 2008). Much organizational literature promotes the idea that human well-being depends centrally on ecological health (e.g. Conservation International, 2015; WWF, 2018). Yet, there remain enduring concerns about instances where human rights or well-being have been compromised by conservation (e.g. Brockington & Igoe, 2006; Dowie, 2011; Reuters, 2019; Survival International, 2019). Hence, there remain questions about how far the anthropocentric turn goes, particularly beyond rhetoric to implementation. Ongoing concerns about the social impacts of conservation suggest that genuine commitments to poverty alleviation are more demanding, requiring more effort to achieve, than a generalized orientation towards people that seems to characterize the communications and direction of travel of many environmental organizations.

The aim of this paper is to investigate the contemporary discourses among conservation practitioners on poverty and conservation. The novel contribution this paper offers is an empirical analysis; existing commentary and analysis of historical developments are described above, but systematic and contemporary empirical analysis of practitioner perspectives is lacking. In particular, there is a need to examine how far commitments go towards poverty alleviation, beyond a widely noted generalized anthropocentrism. We provide an in-depth analysis of how debates about poverty and conservation are manifest in contemporary conservation organizations, examining organizations headquartered in the global north, but also compare and contrast these with perspectives from divergent illustrative contexts in the global south. We employ a novel combination of Q methodology and qualitative analysis in a discourse analytical approach to scrutinize the ethical commitments of conservationists in a context in which the ethics of conservation, and particularly its social implications, are intensely debated (Holmes et al., 2017; Sandbrook et al., 2019). More generally, Sandbrook, Scales, Vira, and Adams (2010) note a lack of research on conservation values and ethics, which we address empirically in this paper. We use the Adams et al. (2004) framework outlined above to interrogate the discourses we elicit and to reflect on their contemporary implications. In line with Adams et al. (2004), and Howe et al. (2018), we offer this effort to parse and clarify differing perspectives on poverty within the conservation movement to illuminate consensual aspects between perspectives, and show where critical differences remain.

FIGURE 1 The Q methodology grid used for this study. Respondents were asked to allocate statements to cells reflecting their relative agreement with each statement

TABLE 1 Composition of sample of respondents

Respondent type	Organization
International conservation organizations (headquartered in the west, with operations in the global south)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Save the Elephant 2. Save the Rhino 3. Wildlife Conservation Society 4. Conservation International* 5. WWF International 6. The Nature Conservancy 7. World Land Trust 8. Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust 9. Zoological Society of London* 10. Arcus Foundation 11. IUCN (World Conservation Union) 12. Birdlife International 13. African Wildlife Foundation 14. Fauna & Flora International
Bolivia national-level conservation organizations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fundación Bosque Seco Chiquitano (Foundation for the Dry Chiquitano Forest) 2. Fundación amigos de la naturaleza (Friends of Nature Foundation) 3. CANAVALIA: Servicios verdes 4. Natura 5. WWF Bolivia
China national-level conservation organizations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Nature Conservancy, China 2. Shanshui 3. Rare 4. Conservation International, China 5. WWF China 6. Fauna & Flora International, China 7. Greenpeace, China
Nepal national-level conservation organizations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Department of Soil Conservation and Watershed Management 2. The President Chure Conservation Board 3. Community Forestry Supporters Network (COFSUN) 4. WWF Nepal 5. Women Leading for Change in Natural Resource Management 6. National Trust for Nature Conservation 7. IUCN Nepal
Ugandan national-level conservation organizations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Uganda Wildlife Authority 2. IUCN Uganda 3. Ecotrust 4. Nature Uganda 5. Treetaalk Plus 6. Environmental Alert
Total	39 interview respondents

Note: Numbering bears no resemblance to nomenclature of interviews in results section (to protect anonymity), but is included to demonstrate the size of samples.

*An asterisk marks a respondent for whom there is an interview, but not a Q sort.

To maintain complementarity between the qualitative analysis and Q, we sought a Q response from all interview respondents in the international and national samples. We have Q responses from 37 of 39 responses; there was attrition of two respondents (within the international sample) because they were unavailable at the time of the Q methodology interaction*. Table 1 describes the sample.

A Q study starts by defining statements reflecting the range of perspectives on a topic and in relation to the research questions. Stephenson (1952, p. 223) argued that the Q set (of statements chosen for a study) should be designed 'to suit the particular requirements of an investigation', and Watts and Stenner (2012) note that a balanced Q set is representative without core ideas missing. We used statements from primary empirical material (international sample interviews) and from a document analysis of secondary material released by sampled conservation organizations, which we had previously coded¹ for qualitative analysis. We also incorporated statements that we developed to ascertain responses to specific ethical principles. This combination of primary and secondary material is acceptable within Q methodology (Sandbrook et al., 2010; Watts & Stenner, 2012).

Adhering to the aims of representativeness and balance in statement design, we selected 32 statements from an initial list of 126, reducing the number by eliminating statements of lower relevance, or redundant statements whose meaning was more effectively conveyed by retained statements. Some statements were altered slightly for clarity or to reverse their meaning, to improve balance (Watts & Stenner, 2012). This Q set was then piloted with eight respondents, after which some small changes for clarity were made. The grid used is displayed in Figure 1, and respondents were asked to sort statements from 'most like I think' to 'least like I think'.

The internet software, htmlQ² was used to administer the Q survey with international respondents, who engaged with Q methodology some months after their interview. This software offered the submission of qualitative commentary on the statement rankings, which is important for interpreting Q results. Respondents in Bolivia, China, Nepal and Uganda were engaged with a paper version of the same Q exercise immediately after their interview. As regards the 'forced versus free' distinction, we encouraged respondents to follow the grid as closely as possible. Rather than as a requirement of statistical analysis, this encourages respondents to prioritize statements and place those most salient to them at the extremes (McKeown & Thomas, 1998; Watts & Stenner, 2012).

The interviews were conducted in English with international, Ugandan and Nepalese respondents. However, the Bolivian and Chinese respondents were engaged in Spanish and Mandarin, respectively. For the Bolivian and Chinese studies, Q statements were available in these languages as well as English (printed on the reverse of the cards), to aid understanding. Statement translations were undertaken by the bilingual leaders of country case studies, and checked using back translation to ensure validity. Where necessary, interview transcripts were also translated into English for qualitative analysis. Qualitative thematic analysis of interviews was undertaken using Nvivo software and these themes were drawn upon to illustrate results.

Q sorts were analysed using PQMethod software. Q methodology analysis focuses around factors, which are common orderings of statements (see Figure 2). We used a centroid factor analysis, in keeping with the principles of Q methodology (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

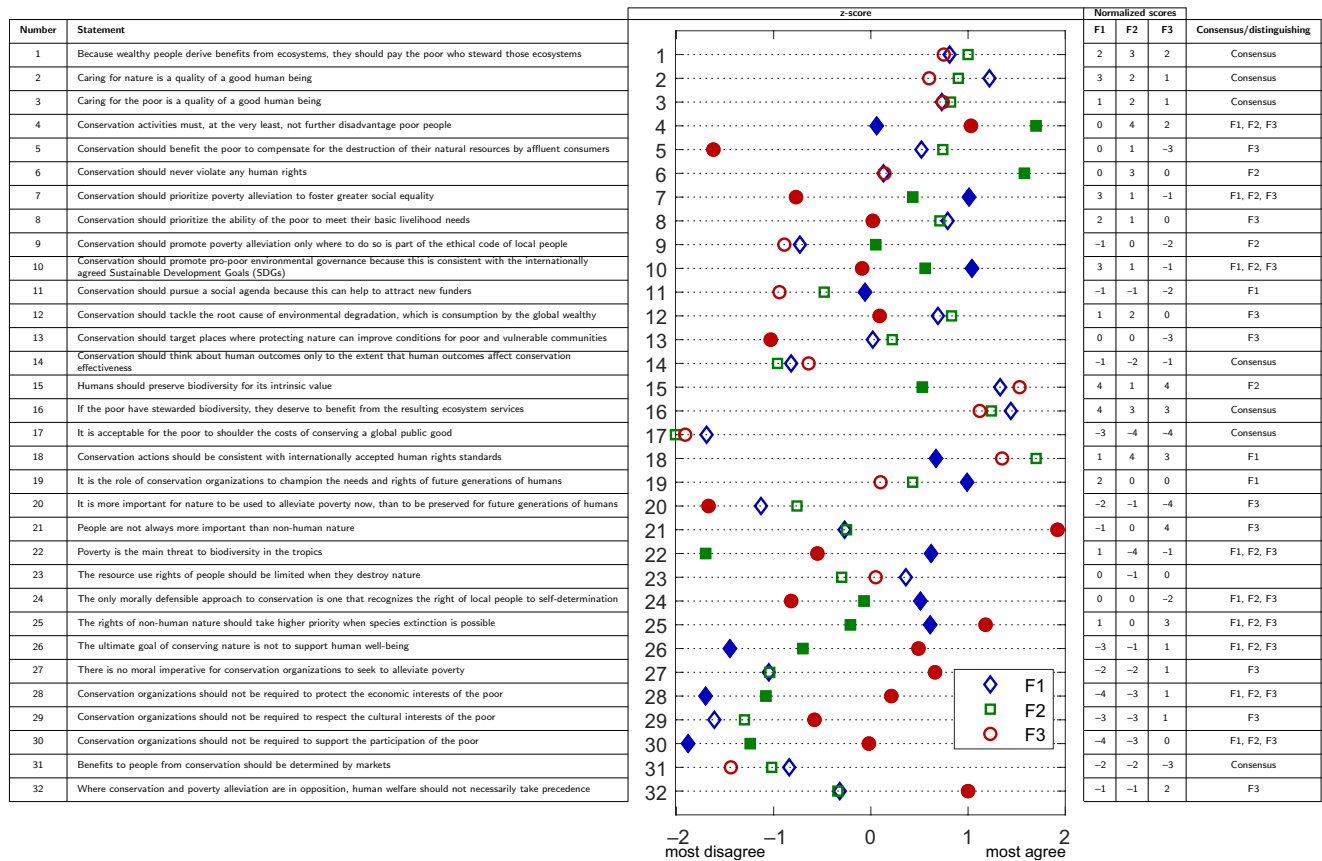


FIGURE 2 Statements with corresponding z-scores and normalized scores for each factor. z-scores are displayed for each factor, with Factor 1 in blue diamond, Factor 2 in green square and Factor 3 in red circle. Where statement is distinguishing for the factor (at $p < 0.05$), the symbol is filled. The right-hand column indicates where a statement is a consensus statement, otherwise it indicates whether it is distinguishing at $p < 0.05$, and for which factor. Note that statement 23 is not a consensus statement, nor statistically significant in distinguishing between factors. Normalized scores are given, corresponding to the positions in the Figure 1 Q methodology grid

Three factors were extracted³ and rotated.⁴ Six respondents did not associate sufficiently with any one factor. Once factors are identified, the analysis becomes more interpretive and factors can be understood (and are thus labelled henceforth) as discourses, constellations of attitudes or values; in Dryzek's words: 'shared way[s] of apprehending the world' (Dryzek, 2005, p. 9).

3 | DISCOURSES ON POVERTY WITHIN CONSERVATION

Three discourses were identified, which we name as follows: Discourse 1: needs-based pro-poor with ecocentrism; Discourse 2: rights-based pro-poor; Discourse 3: ecocentrism with rights commitments. Figure 2 presents the numerical characterizations of discourses, showing z-scores⁵ and normalized scores (corresponding with positions in Figure 1) for each statement. These numerical characterizations of the discourses are based upon an 'ideal-type' Q sort, which represents the mean ordering of statements for respondent Q sorts associated with this discourse. We encourage readers to directly consult Figure 2 to interpret differences between the discourses, and readers can cross reference Figure 2 while reading

the following results section which closely references statements. This information is presented in more conventional Q methodology format in Table S2. In what follows, we describe and interpret the discourses, referring to Q statement numbers and their normalized score (position in Figure 1 grid) in parentheses (Q-#: normalized score), and marking distinguishing statements (ranked in a significantly different way in other discourses; Watts & Stenner, 2012), with an asterisk. In addition, we illustrate the discourses with qualitative data (italicized) derived from the Q sorting process (marked with a superscript^Q), and interviews (marked with a superscript^I).

3.1 | Discourse 1: Needs-based pro-poor with ecocentrism

Discourse 1 expresses joint ecocentric and pro-poor anthropocentric imperatives. In straddling what are often thought of as opposite poles of anthropocentrism and ecocentrism, the discourse is relatively nuanced. It is also distinguished by emphasizing human needs and interests rather than human rights and safeguards. The emphasis on needs, interests and livelihoods finds resonance with ideas around the 'environmentalism of the poor' (Guha & Martínez-Alier, 1997). It is

associated with 16 respondents, including one US-based representative and five of seven respondents from each of China and Nepal, and five of six from Uganda; it therefore has very strong representation from these country case studies. The gender balance broadly represents the sample. It is associated with a range of organizations with species-oriented and broader conservation interests.

Discourse 1 promotes the economic and participatory interests (Q-28*: -4; Q-30*: -4) of poor people to meet livelihood needs (Q-8: +2) and on the basis of what people deserve (Q-16: +4). This deservedness principle is evident in this quote:

the poor have always provided some form of protection to the very systems that provide goods and services to humanity [I-09, international dataset^Q].

However, the discourse does not more generally prioritize related international principles/norms around human rights (Q-18*: +1; Q-6: 0) or do no harm (Q-4*: 0). In addition, when compared with other discourses, Discourse 1 is more inclined to see poverty as a threat to biodiversity in the tropics (Q-22*: +1), for instance:

The poor are most destructive because they lack alternative, hence [they] need to be targeted because of the threat they cause from their activities [I-16, Uganda dataset¹].

The discourse hence recognizes the role of poor people in protection (Q-16, above), but distinctively compared to other discourses, in some circumstances also regards poverty as a threat to biodiversity. This discourse more strongly promotes human well-being as a conservation goal than other discourses (Q-26*: -3), and considers a moral imperative in conservation organizations seeking to alleviate poverty (Q-27: -2). The discourse weakly prioritizes humans above non-human nature (Q-21: -1; Q-32: -1), suggesting the following caveated response to Q-21 is typical:

Non-human nature is essential to the health of the planet Earth and to human survival. There are times when human desires must not be met in order to save the planet [I-12, international dataset^Q].

There is a related indication that the risk of species extinction might elevate the rights of non-human nature (Q-25*: +1). Ecocentric dimensions are also expressed in the strong salience of intrinsic values of biodiversity (Q-15: +4) and the human virtue of caring for nature (Q-2: +3). In Q methodology, ideas are salient when they feature towards the grid extremes (see Figure 1).

Relatively high salience is given to the SDGs in promoting pro-poor environmental governance (Q-10*: +3), and greater social equality is prioritized as the rationale for conservation organizations to promote poverty alleviation (Q-7*: +3). The needs and rights of future human generations are salient as something conservation organizations should champion (Q-19*: +3).

3.2 | Discourse 2: Rights-based pro-poor

Discourse 2 is pro-poor and strongly emphasizes the 'do no harm' principle, human rights and social safeguards. It is more closely associated with Discourse 1 than 3. It is associated with 10 respondents, five international, and including one from each of Uganda and Nepal, and three from Bolivia. The gender balance roughly represents the sample. Most Discourse 2 respondents are drawn from organizations with a focus broader than species, and four of five of the international respondents are drawn from organizational signatories to the CIHR.

Discourse 2 promotes anthropocentric conservation imperatives (Q-26*: -1) and is distinctively characterized by giving priority to do no harm (Q-4*: +4) standards in conservation and international human rights norms (Q-18: +4; Q-6*: +3). This is exemplified in the qualitative data:

Standards are there to protect vulnerable people. It is important to respect them. Conservation that doesn't is unlikely to succeed or be sustainable [I-02, international dataset^Q];

[we all] have a responsibility to adhere to internationally accepted human rights standards... Everything else [referring to other statements] should fall under this one [I-08, international dataset^Q; similar sentiments expressed by I-03, I-06, I-36].

Reactions to Q-23 (-1) and Q-25* (0) (non-salient, but with a lower rank position in this than any other discourse) also signify the importance of human rights within this discourse.

In Discourse 2, there is outright rejection of the idea that poverty is the main threat to biodiversity in the tropics (Q-22: -4), for example (direct responses to Q-22):

Don't blame poverty for the impact on biodiversity, the poor are not the culprits of the loss of biodiversity [I-33, Bolivian dataset^Q], and:

Wealth, and the increasing consumption of natural resources around the world is the greatest threat. Poor people consume a lot less than wealthy people [I-05, international dataset^Q].

There is also rejection of the idea that the poor should shoulder the costs of conserving a global public good (Q-17: -4), although as a consensus statement, Q-17 does not differentiate the discourses. Respondents associated with Discourse 2 noted the following:

[These costs] should be shouldered by those most able to pay and/or those causing the damage [I-03, international dataset^Q];

Given the extent to which environmental issues... are driven by consumption in developed countries (not by local poverty) poor people should not have to bear the costs of conserving these global public goods [I-08, international dataset^Q].

There is some related critique of the consumption impact of the world's wealthy on ecosystems and poverty (Q-1: +3; Q-12: +2; Q-5: +1 [all of which take a higher rank in this discourse than the others]), and to illustrate this:

...wealth is a much greater threat to ape survival than poverty... The greatest threats and challenges we have seen have been more from this very strong wave of consumption of natural resources... which is much more driven by large companies and feeding populations very, very far away... than local people and their...direct poverty [I-05, international dataset^Q]. Likewise, The greatest threat has to do with consumer society, with the interests of the big monopolies, with corrupt governments, and with an uninformed society [I-33, Bolivian dataset^Q].

However, social equality is not strongly prioritized as a principle for conservation promoting poverty alleviation (Q-7*: +1). As with Discourse 1, but not quite so strongly (at least on Q-28 and 30), this discourse prioritizes the economic (Q-28*: -4), participatory (Q-30*: -4) and cultural (Q-29: -3) interests of the poor in conservation:

Conservation is about conserving irreplaceable public goods (biodiversity) often rooted in culture and intrinsic values... To ignore cultural interests of the poor seems deeply hypocritical [I-08, international dataset^Q].

Discourse 2 ranks Q-20 (-1) about nature being used to alleviate poverty now, rather than preserved for future generations, more highly than others. This discourse puts overall less emphasis than other discourses on ecocentric conservation and intrinsic value (Q-15*: +1), and prioritizes human rights, but appears agnostic about the rights of non-human nature (Q-25*: 0): When asked to consider situations where conservation and poverty alleviation are in direct opposition, associated respondents tend to prioritize humans, although Q-32 is not highly salient.

3.3 | Discourse 3: Ecocentrism with rights commitments

Discourse 3 is ecocentric and articulates some pro-poor commitments in terms of social safeguards. It shares with Discourse 2 the importance of human rights and safeguards, and a critique of wealth as a driver of conservation threats. Some aspects of ecocentrism are

shared with Discourse 1. It is associated with three respondents from the international sample and two from the Bolivian country case study. It is associated with four male respondents, and one female. Among international organization respondents associating with this discourse, two of three represent more species-oriented organizations.

Discourse 3 is characterized by an ecocentric, as distinct from anthropocentric, or pro-poor, imperative (Q-21*: +4; Q-32*: +2), for example,

Given that every species' survival, including our own, depends on a healthy, functioning planet, we must surely sometimes or often prioritise other species' over humans' needs [I-01, international dataset^Q].

The expression of ecocentrism is manifest particularly in relation to the extinction of non-human nature (Q-25*: +3), for example,

one of the positions that we've tried to take is that all species have a right to exist [I-07, international dataset^I]; and endangered species simply don't get anywhere near the funds that they should be getting [I-08, international dataset^I].

This is associated with human well-being as an ultimate goal of conservation being non-salient (Q-26*: +1), for instance,

Humans are just one species on the planet so it is not the ultimate goal to preserve more humans but to preserve the vast biodiversity of life [I-04, international dataset^Q].

There was weak rejection of the idea of a moral imperative for conservation organizations to seek to alleviate poverty (Q-27*: +1) and a number of statements about economic (Q-28*: +1), participatory (Q-30*: 0) and cultural interests (Q-29*: -1) were non-salient, which distinguishes this discourse from others. However, 'do no harm' principles are salient as regards the interests of poor people (Q-4*: +2) and the idea of conservation acting consistently with human rights standards is promoted (Q-18: +3). Yet, in the view of this discourse, this does not mean that conservation cannot violate any human right (Q-6: 0). There is a rejection of conservation targeting on the basis of where it can alleviate poverty (Q-13*: -3) and other rationales for conservation to alleviate poverty are non-salient (Q-5*: -3; Q-7*: -1; Q-10*: -1), as is the idea of self-determination by local people (Q-24*: -2). However, there is strong rejection of the idea that the poor should shoulder the costs of conserving a global public good (Q-17: -4), and strong priority is given to future generations of humans (Q-20: -4), commensurate with the posterity ethic of ecocentrism, for instance,

actions to reduce poverty in the short-term potentially ignore the long-term and much more serious consequences of environmental destruction [I-01, international dataset^Q].

The idea of poverty being the main threat to tropical biodiversity is non-salient (Q-22*: -1).

3.4 | Summary of convergence and divergence between the discourses

The three discourses have a number of points of convergence, most evidently that the poor should not shoulder the costs of conserving a global public good (Q-17). Qualitative material from different discourses is representative:

From the humanitarian perspective, the rich people have capability and should bear more cost... to let the poor people bear the cost is unacceptable [I-30, Chinese dataset^Q; identical sentiment expressed by I-08, international dataset^Q].

In addition, there is consensus about a 'justice as deservedness' basis for the poor to benefit from ecosystem services that they have stewarded (Q-16). Similarly, there is consensual support for compensation to the poor for their stewardship (Q-1), and the virtue ethics statements, both ecocentric (Q-2) and anthropocentric (Q-3), are relatively consensual.

Broadly, in terms of the anthropocentrism and ecocentrism dimensions, all discourses share some element of ecocentrism, with Discourse 3 being the strongest followed by Discourse 1 and Discourse 2, respectively. Discourse 3 is more willing to prioritize non-human nature in the case of extinction (Q-25*; distinguishes

all), whereas Discourses 1 and 2 lean more towards anthropocentrism and Q-25 accordingly has low salience (+1*; 0*, respectively). All have some commitment to anthropocentrism, although there is some contention as to whether human well-being should be an ultimate goal (Q-26*) of conservation. However, different discourses bring to bear different rationales, with Discourse 1 prioritizing the interests (Q-28, 29 and 30), needs and sufficientarian basis (Q-8 [marginally] highest for Discourse 1) (sufficientarianism being the idea that everyone has a right to a decent livelihood; see Lehmann et al. (2018) or Gosseries (2011)). Discourse 2 adds to this focus on interests a strong priority around do no harm principles (Q-4: +4*; distinguishes all discourses), and social safeguards, emphasizing human rights (Q-6: +3*, and Q-18: +4).

The conceptualizations of poverty as a driver of conservation threats (Q-22) is also an instructive way of differentiating the discourses, and particularly important in distinguishing Discourse 1 (+1*) from Discourse 2 (-4*). As shown, particularly in the qualitative data from Discourse 2 respondents (and also a feature of the qualitative data from those associated with Discourse 3 (I-01 and I-07 from international dataset), there is an often robust rejection of the idea of poverty as a driver of degradation. In interviews, associated respondents often made immediate and necessary associations instead with drivers associated with wealth and (over) consumption. On wealth as a driver of threats (Q-5 and Q-12), the differences between discourses are less compelling, with Discourse 2 being arguably the most critical of threat drivers originating in wealth and consumption. Figure 3 presents the radar diagram showing five key dimensions of divergence between the discourses.

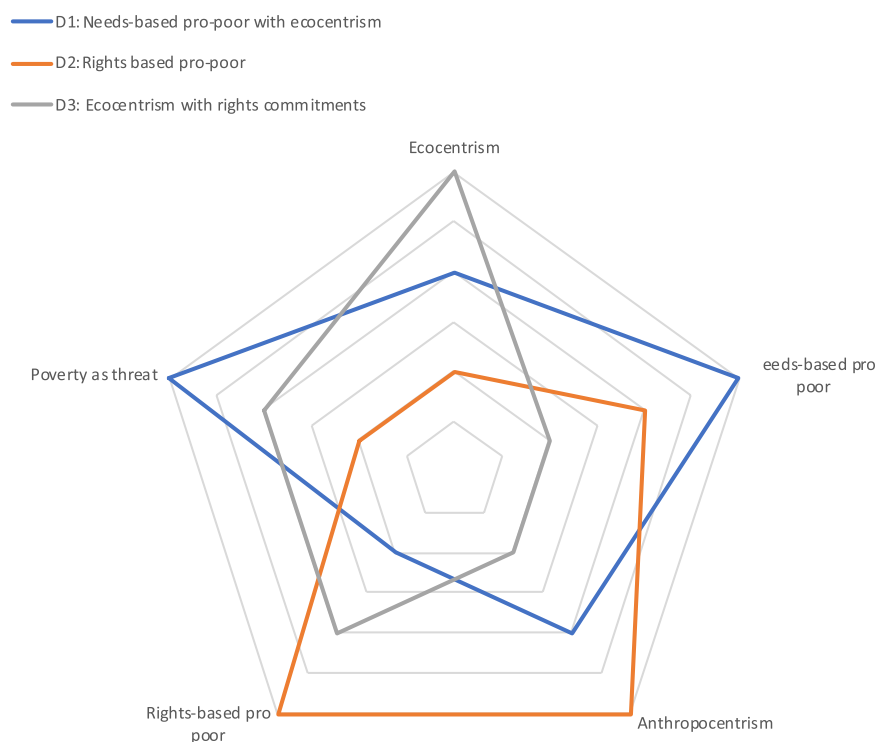


FIGURE 3 Comparison of discourses on five key dimensions of difference. Discourses are compared on a simple ordinal scale, and accordingly should only be interpreted in relative positions to one another (for instance, D3 is more ecocentric than D1). Relative positions are described in the text in Section 3.4, which references the corresponding Q statement rankings for selected dimensions

4 | COMPARING THE DISCOURSES ALONGSIDE POSITIONS IN THE LITERATURE

All of the discourses share some commitments to not solely an anthropocentric, but rather a more demanding set of pro-poor concerns. Thus, Adams et al.'s (2004) first position, that poverty and conservation are separate realms, is not a view well represented in mainstream contemporary international conservation organizations, nor in the conservation sectors of sampled country cases. The separation of conservation and poverty realms would actually be inimical to Discourses 1 and 2, and although the moral reasoning in Discourse 3 is more ecocentric, there was certainly no attempt, particularly in the qualitative data, to disregard poverty concerns. However, such concerns were placed within an overall ecocentric rationality, to which were added particular commitments to social safeguards. Hence, what Adams et al. (2004) characterize as 'separate realms' thinking does not appear to have survived well the test of time, at least within this mainstream international conservation-focused sample and sampled national settings. However, it is critical to note that perspectives within the international development community are also influential at the poverty/conservation nexus, and have not been addressed at all here. Yet, if our findings do indicate a broader trend in the conservation movement that 'separate realms' thinking has declined, this could be seen as a triumph for those who have been promoting the joint consideration of poverty and conservation, and more broadly, integrated thinking about the environment and human well-being. This possible shift might not be surprising when we consider the foregrounding of these concepts in recent initiatives such as the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) and the Intergovernmental Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services.

The second and essentially Brundtland viewpoint of 'poverty is a critical constraint on conservation' (Adams et al., 2004, p. 1147) was a matter of contention in these data, with an interesting geographical inflection. The extent to which poverty was conceptualized as a driver of conservation threats (Q-22) is a statement that distinguishes all of the discourses, and particularly Discourse 1 (+1) from Discourse 2 (-4). While it is not a strength of Q methodology to link discourses with demographics, it remains worthy of note that Discourse 1 is very dominated by representatives from China, Nepal and Uganda. It is also notable that respondents from the global north and Bolivia were more circumspect about poverty as a driver of conservation threats, marking a strong departure from Brundtland. It is also instructive to contrast these perspectives about poverty as a driver with those relating to wealth as a driver of threats. Discourse 2 is arguably the most critical of threat drivers with a basis in wealth, and critical commentary about wealth and overconsumption as drivers was very much present in the qualitative data, particularly among Discourse 2 and 3 respondents. These discourses were overwhelmingly dominated by respondents from the global north and Bolivia, whereas the discourse that is dominated by respondents from China, Nepal and Uganda was more likely to associate some drivers with poverty. The preliminary indicative findings we present here could motivate

further research to investigate these questions with a research design more appropriate for understanding links between perspectives and demographics. However, there appear to be two elements to try and explain in relation to this preliminary finding. First, we need to explain a possible move away from the conceptualization of poverty as a driver among respondents from the global north, in contrast to the logic of the Brundtland commission, which predominated at least during the 1990s (Duraiappah, 1998). This perhaps reflects the more recent realities of globalized consumption, along with emerging research demonstrating the importance of contemporary globalized drivers of biodiversity threats, originating in the global north (Barlow et al., 2018; Moran & Kanemoto, 2017). It may also reflect the traction of ideas of environmental justice, and the environmentalism of the poor in challenging the previously dominant narratives. Second, we must explain why respondents from the global north tended to be more critical of wealth and overconsumption as drivers, compared to Asian or African counterparts in this research. This may be as a result of respondents feeling more able to criticize the impacts of their own societies, or perhaps more aware of the growing evidence demonstrating the shifting origin of conservation threats.

Within the conservation community, it is contentious whether conservation organizations should contest the global economic order, which frames globalized patterns of wealth and consumption (Büscher et al., 2017; Corson, 2010). Adams (2013) writes, conservation organizations 'see their job as saving nature in its last fastnesses, and not as considering the wider picture of the world economy' (p. 311). This perspective about the appropriate scope of conservation action was discernible in our qualitative data. It would surely take significant restructuring and reformulation of organizations' rationale and functioning to contest wealth and consumption drivers, and may also jeopardize organizational funding from corporations or individuals. However, a number of respondents, particularly those associated with Discourse 2, did promote the idea that this agenda did need to be championed in the conservation movement. For instance,

Inequality is one of the critical drivers of degradation in my field and one of the critical targets we've not yet figured out how to hit... I don't think conservation organisations are in the slightest bit equipped to address issues of inequality other than by targeting the very poorest in the work they do [I-02, international dataset¹].

It was also noted that some organizations do, increasingly, extend the remit of traditional conservation foci by adopting stances around broader issues of consumption and climate change, for instance [e.g. I-03, international dataset¹].

We also used the research to examine whether respondents applied an instrumental logic to poverty and conservation. It is important to understand how significant this logic is today, given its influence in the Brundtland report and throughout the 1990s (Duraiappah, 1998). With reference to the typology of Adams

et al. (2004), this is an extension of the second viewpoint; if 'poverty is a critical constraint on conservation', an instrumental logic supports the conservation movement taking an interest in poverty because poverty reduction will lead to conservation gains. While this logic was certainly evident at times in qualitative data, for instance:

we care about people's wellbeing because we see it as a purposeful way to get to a conservation outcome. So we see improving people's wellbeing as a way to provide incentives for conservation practice [I-10, international dataset¹].⁶

and a further quote:

I think we have to be totally up front and say that as an organisation our mission is very clear: to save species from extinction. So... we work with human communities as a way of saving species from extinction... You can't do one without the other [I-07, international dataset¹].

However, despite some instrumental perspectives being present in the qualitative data, statement Q-14, which explicitly tests an instrumental logic, was not salient for any discourse (Figure 2). Indeed, the placement of Q-14 (and furthermore the pragmatism embodied in Q-11, which is also non-salient), points to a normative—rather than instrumental—logic that respondents applied to the Q methodology instrument. This normative logic is also very evident in the following qualitative data (in direct response to Q-14):

I also disagree with this, because there is the moral obligation, no? [I-35, Bolivian dataset^Q];

There is a moral obligation to consider human outcomes, at a minimum in order to do no harm, but ideally to actively promote human welfare [I-03, international dataset^Q].

In contrast, therefore, to the instrumental perspective, the predominant view, particularly within Discourses 2 and 3, was an ethically justified idea that 'conservation activities must, at the very least, not further disadvantage poor people' (Q-4: 0*; +4*; +2*). Adams et al. (2004) are clear that this third position ('conservation shouldn't compromise poverty reduction' [p. 1147]) is conceptually distinct from the instrumental (second) position. The third position relates closely to the idea of 'do no harm' in conservation, which was prominent in much of the document analysis we undertook, for example, 'Make special efforts to avoid harm to those who are vulnerable to infringements of their rights and to support the protection and fulfilment of their rights within the scope of our conservation programs' (Principle 3 of CIHR: <http://www.thecihr.org/about>), and the interview data, for example,

Conservation actions should never further disadvantage poor people who are already struggling to survive. Conservation actions should secure livelihoods, human rights and access to natural resources, and help achieve a decent quality of life. Only then will these actions will be effective [I-06, international dataset^Q].

Thus, a strong theme in our data is the direct linkage many respondents particularly in Discourses 2 and 3 made between human rights and the do no harm principle. In a post-Brundtland world where trade-offs between conservation and poverty are more widely recognized, our research demonstrates very clearly how safeguard frameworks based around human rights are now emphasized to prevent conservation compromising human well-being. It is worth noting that human rights are not mentioned in the discussion (Adams et al., 2004) developed around position 3, and the strong emphasis in our data on rights protections seems to have really developed since the Adams et al. (2004) publication. The CIHR itself has developed subsequent to 2004. A related, and potentially profound, shift indicated in our data is that many (particularly Discourse 2) respondents characterized poverty alleviation in terms of the achievement and protection of rights (e.g. I-02, 03, 06, 08), rather than in what might have been expected as narrow, conventional understandings of poverty, for instance based on income. Indeed, and going further into rights issues, many respondents associated with Discourse 2 highlighted in interviews that the realization of rights can in fact promote conservation.

While ideas about rights were strongly associated with Discourse 2, and also prominent in Discourse 3, one important finding of this research was that they had little resonance in Discourse 1. This is evident in a group of statements which most clearly allow Discourses 1 and 2 to be differentiated (Q-4; Q-6; Q-18; Figure 2). While Discourse 1 takes a welfare-oriented approach to poverty, Discourse 2 (and 3 to an extent) prioritizes more of a rights-based approach. That this emphasis on rights is not, however, universally prioritized, is an important indicative finding of this research. It is however important to question the significance of this, given that safeguards and rights are often designed specifically to protect welfare and needs. Yet, the communication of these aspects was consistently distinct in different discourses, and at the very least, the mismatch might lead to a different basis for claims to natural resources, different policy imperatives and challenges of communication between those associated with different discourses. It is also worth highlighting that beyond the corollary emphases of rights and needs, there remains substantive disagreement on Q-4 and the acceptability of harm to humans from conservation.

Another implication of this differentiation in discourses is geographical. The difference between Discourse 1 (largely respondents from China, Nepal and Uganda) and, particularly Discourse 2, but also Discourse 3 (both largely respondents in the global north) on the 'do no harm' position and the emphasis placed upon rights and safeguards in harm mitigation is significant. It may even signify implications for the potential for shared perspectives between

conservation organizations working in partnership across the global north and south. One respondent discussed the challenges of harmonizing the implementation of social policies across a large conservation network:

this comes back to the quality of implementation of our social policies... we have the principles in place but it is an absolute fact that we need to continue to build those down... from project design through monitoring and the way we implement our work [I-03, international dataset¹].

More broadly, the geographical mismatch in perspectives on safeguards and rights may already be, or be set to become, a blockage in the agenda of, for instance, the CIHR in national contexts, particularly perhaps in Africa and Asia, if our results are indicative of broader patterns. While human rights are conceived as universal, this research indicates that their importance in conservation safeguards may not be universally accepted.

Finally, we relate our findings to Adams et al.'s (2004) fourth position that 'poverty reduction depends on living resource conservation' (p. 1148). It is worth noting that this goes beyond the promotion of the general idea that globally, the environment supports human well-being, to a more specific rationale that local conservation strategies should target poverty alleviation objectives in terms of what is conserved. The 'resource conservationist' position is represented in Q-8 and Q-13. While Q-13 is not salient for Discourses 1 and 2, it is distinguishingly negatively placed (-3^*) in Discourse 3 (Figure 2). Similarly, Q-8 was most salient for Discourse 1 (in line with its welfare approach to poverty), less so for Discourse 2 and distinguished at low salience (0^*) for Discourse 3. It was, however, a consensual statement with high agreement that there is a deservedness basis for poor people benefiting from ES they have stewarded (Q-16; Figure 2). Therefore, the 'resource conservationist' position had some limited resonance within Discourse 1, little salience at all in Discourse 2, and Discourse 3 rejected conservation planning on a pro-poor basis, as part of a general agnosticism about conservation and human well-being, beyond securing 'do no harm' principles. Hence, Adams et al.'s (2004) position 4 garners little support within these discourses elicited from mainstream international conservation organizations, and the mainstream conservation sectors in sampled countries. This may not be surprising given the sampling strategy of this research, to focus on conservation organizations as opposed to those championing rights of local and indigenous peoples.

5 | CONCLUSION

We investigate contemporary discourses about poverty and conservation within the conservation sector and offer the first empirical analysis of perspectives on this nexus. Using a novel combination of Q methodological and more conventional qualitative analysis,

we distinguish and elaborate three distinct positions on the issues, and compare these to the literature, including the influential Adams et al.'s (2004) framework. In relation to this framework, we find little support within our sample for Positions 1 ('separate realms') or 4 ('resource conservationist'), suggesting either that these positions would be more likely found in professional perspectives beyond our mainstream conservation-focused sample, for instance within the development sector, or that they have not stood well the test of time. However, there is synergy between Adams et al.'s (2004) Position 2 'poverty as a critical constraint on conservation' (p. 1147), within Discourse 1, where poverty is conceived as a driver of conservation threats. In contrast, however, to this effectively Brundtland logic, Discourse 2 (and 3 to some extent) challenge this idea, and it was striking that respondents adhering to these discourses sometimes highlighted instead what they see as the challenges of overconsumption and affluence in both generating conservation threats and perpetuating poverty. Our research suggests that this is an area in which thinking has shifted in the 30 or so years since the Brundtland report, perhaps reflecting new globalized realities. Adams et al.'s (2004) 3rd position 'conservation should not compromise poverty reduction' (p. 1147) has particularly strong resonance with Discourses 2 and 3, whereas we have already noted that Discourse 1 places less emphasis on the idea of safeguards and do no harm principles.

Motivations for conservation are often characterized as dichotomously either anthropocentric or ecocentric (e.g. Kareiva & Marvier, 2012), and this has been a problematic facet of the 'new conservation' debates (Holmes et al., 2017). However, our analysis shows the complex hybridity of perspectives within our sample, with all three discourses containing some elements of both. This supports recent evidence that contemporary conservationists adhere to both imperatives (Sandbrook et al., 2019). However, more effectively than a Likert survey, Q methodology does reveal respondents' ultimate priorities, for instance in response to statements 21 and 32, which convey the essential ecocentrism of Discourse 3 (Figure 2). Discourses 1 and 2 lean most towards anthropocentrism, but they are characterized by different orientations of conservation to poverty. Hence, below the surface of the 'anthropocentric turn' we traced above, there appear to be two essentially distinct framings of poverty considerations that conservation practitioners adhere to. The first prioritizes welfare, needs and sufficientarianism and this perspective is more strongly associated with respondents in China, Nepal and Uganda. Our research design does not enable us to generalize these findings, but further research could investigate whether these perspectives are associated with the continents of Asia and Africa. The second framing of poverty drawn upon by Discourses 2 and 3 focuses much more on do no harm principles and social safeguards, and this appears to follow a western, or internationalized human rights-oriented discourse. It is striking to note, therefore, that while Discourse 3 is essentially ecocentric, it was not accompanied by a disregard for poverty concerns, but instead an adherence to this internationalized rights discourse. This suggests that agendas such as the Conservation Initiative on Human

Rights may have traction even among organizations dominated by ecocentric perspectives.

Using Q methodology, underpinned by more nuanced qualitative research, we have elicited and elaborated upon areas of consensus and divergence within conservation practitioner perspectives. We expect that these results and analyses will serve to update, parse and clarify perspectives on poverty within the conservation movement, illuminating consensual aspects and revealing where critical differences remain. Although the three discourses lean in different directions on anthropocentrism and ecocentrism, there is significant common ground on many principles of both. There is consensus that the poor should not shoulder the costs of conservation, but two distinct framings of poverty emerge, bringing different emphases and implying distinct policy imperatives. Finally, practitioners afford different weights to poverty and wealth drivers of environmental threats, and debates are clearly ongoing among our respondents and elsewhere (Adams, 2013), as to what this changing picture of drivers demands of the conservation, and broader environmental, movement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the research participants who gave very generously of their time, and offered fascinating insights. We thank the two reviewers for detailed and rigorous reviews which enabled us to improve the paper and we thank C. Guiver for generous assistance in the preparation of Figure 2. The early part of this work was shaped in discussion with Prof. Thomas Sikor, to whom we are deeply grateful. This research was supported by the Ecosystem Services for Poverty Alleviation (ESPA) Programme, grant number NE/M007103/1. The ESPA programme was funded by the UK Department for International Development, the UK Economic and Social Research Council, and the UK Natural Environment Research Council.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

We do not have any conflicts of interest to declare.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors conceived the ideas. J.A.F., A.M., I.L. and H.S. designed the Q methodology instrument and interviews; J.A.F., H.D., J.H., M.I., D.M.M. and I.R. collected the qualitative and Q methodological data for the international and country case studies; J.A.F. and J.D. analysed the Q methodology data; J.A.F. analysed the qualitative data; J.A.F. led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The Q methodology data underpinning this study are publicly available from the UK Data Service at <http://reshare.ukdataservice.ac.uk/>, with <https://doi.org/10.5255/UKDA-SN-854313> (Fisher, 2020).

ORCID

Janet A. Fisher  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6549-2358>

ENDNOTES

¹ We reviewed website pages from organizations within the sample for the dual purpose of developing Q statements and preparing interviews. We selected the most appropriate pages (for instance, regarding work with local communities, or explicitly about approaches to poverty), and undertook qualitative thematic coding.

² <https://github.com/aproxima/htmlq>

³ Watts and Stenner (2012) describe objective criteria for factor choice while emphasizing that these can be contradictory, and holistic judgement is required in order that extracted factors are meaningful in Q methodology terms. The Eigenvalues (or Kaiser–Guttman) criterion would have led us to extract six factors. However, this would not represent much reduction of the correlation matrix, and Brown (1980) argues that this criterion is relatively meaningless in Q studies. A further criterion is that meaningful factors should have at least two associated respondents. This would eliminate the four and five factor solutions. Humphrey's rule (see Watts & Stenner, 2012) would suggest a two-factor solution was appropriate. Overall, we drew on our experience of Q methodology and also considered the accompanying qualitative dataset, which indicated that the third factor contributed meaning to the study, and aided understanding in terms of contrast with the other two factors. Including it meant that ecocentrism was expressed in the Q analysis, and because this was very evident in the qualitative data, we considered it merited expression through Q. In summary then, the extraction of the third factor was supported by the eigenvalue criterion, the criterion that a meaningful factor must have at least two associated respondents (Factor 3 has 5, and explains 13% of study variance). Its inclusion was also supported by related qualitative data, although it did not meet the Humphrey's rule criterion.

⁴ Factors were rotated using a varimax procedure within PQMethod, followed with 'by-hand' rotation (this combination is described by Watts & Stenner (2012, p. 126) as useful and effective for exploiting the 'complementary strengths' of both processes). We rotated F1 and F2 anticlockwise by 2 degrees to incorporate two further respondents in the factor solution (moving from eight to six respondents not associated with any factor). This greater incorporation of respondents in factors is noted as desirable by Stricklin and Almeida (2000) and Watts and Stenner (2012). Respondents were flagged for factors using manual flagging (as recommended by Watts and Stenner (2012), when exceeding the threshold of 0.46 and a clear 10 decimal points higher than their association with another factor; see Watts & Stenner, 2012).

⁵ z-score numeric values are given in Table S2.

⁶ It should however also be noted that this quote was later coupled with an assertion about it being unacceptable for the poor to bear the burden of conserving public goods.

REFERENCES

- Adams, W. M. (2004). *Against extinction: The story of conservation*. London, UK: Earthscan.
- Adams, W. M. (2013). Conservation in the Anthropocene: Biodiversity, poverty and sustainability. In D. Roe, J. Elliott, C. Sandbrook, & M. Walpole (Eds.), *Biodiversity conservation and poverty alleviation: Exploring the evidence for a link* (pp. 304–315). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Adams, W. M., Aveling, R., Brockington, D., Dickson, B., Elliott, J., Hutton, J., ... Wolmer, W. (2004). Biodiversity conservation and the eradication of poverty. *Science*, 306(5699), 1146–1149. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1097920>
- Barlow, J., França, F., Gardner, T. A., Hicks, C. C., Lennox, G. D., Berenguer, E., ... Graham, N. A. J. (2018). The future of hyperdiverse tropical

- ecosystems. *Nature*, 559(7715), 517–526. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0301-1>
- Brockington, D. (2009). *Celebrity and the environment: Fame, wealth and power in conservation*. London, UK: Zed Books.
- Brockington, D., & Igoe, J. (2006). Eviction for conservation: A global overview. *Conservation and Society*, 4, 424–470.
- Brown, S. (1980). *Political subjectivity: Applications of Q methodology in political science*. Yale, MI: Yale University Press.
- Büscher, B., Fletcher, R., Brockington, D., Sandbrook, C., Adams, W. M., Campbell, L., ... Shanker, K. (2017). Half-Earth or Whole Earth? Radical ideas for conservation, and their implications. *Oryx*, 51(3), 407–410. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605316001228>
- Chapin, M. (2004). A challenge to conservationists. *Worldwatch Institute Magazine*, Nov/Dec 2004.
- CIHR. (2014). *Human rights in conservation: Progress since Durban*. Conservation Initiative on Human Rights: White Paper, November 2014, Conservation Initiative on Human Rights.
- Conservation International. (2015). *Impact report*. Arlington, VA: Conservation International.
- Corson, C. (2010). Shifting environmental governance in a neoliberal world: US aid for conservation. *Antipode*, 42(3), 576–602. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8330.2010.00764.x>
- Dowie, M. (2011). *Conservation refugees: The hundred-year conflict between global conservation and native peoples*. Cambridge, MA and London: MIT Press.
- Dryzek, J. S. (2005). *The politics of the earth*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Duraipappah, A. K. (1998). Poverty and environmental degradation: A review and analysis of the nexus. *World Development*, 26(12), 2169–2179. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X\(98\)00100-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X(98)00100-4)
- Fisher, B., & Christopher, T. (2007). Poverty and biodiversity: Measuring the overlap of human poverty and the biodiversity hotspots. *Ecological Economics*, 62(1), 93–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2006.05.020>
- Fisher, J. (2020). *A study of professional conservationists' perspectives on poverty 2015–2017* [data collection]. UK Data Service. SN: 854313, <https://doi.org/10.5255/UKDA-SN-854313>
- Fisher, J. A., & Brown, K. (2014). Ecosystem services concepts and approaches in conservation: Just a rhetorical tool? *Ecological Economics*, 108, 257–265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2014.11.004>
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), 219–245. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800405284363>
- Grove, R. H. (1995). *Green imperialism. Colonial expansion, tropical island Edens and the origins of environmentalism, 1600–1860*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Guha, R., & Martínez-Alier, J. (1997). *Varieties of environmentalism: Essays north and south*. London, UK: Earthscan.
- Gosseries, A. (2011). Sufficiencyarianism. In *Routledge encyclopedia of philosophy*. Taylor and Francis. Retrieved from <https://www.rep.routledge.com/articles/thematic/sufficiencyarianism/v-1>
- Holmes, G., Sandbrook, C., & Fisher, J. A. (2017). Understanding conservationists' perspectives on the new-conservation debate. *Conservation Biology*, 31(2), 353–363. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.12811>
- Howe, C., Corbera, E., Vira, B., Brockington, D., & Adams, W. M. (2018). Distinct positions underpin ecosystem services for poverty alleviation. *Oryx*, 54(3), 375–382. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605318000261>
- Kareiva, P., & Marvier, M. (2012). What is conservation science? *BioScience*, 62(11), 962–969. <https://doi.org/10.1525/bio.2012.62.11.5>
- Klein, L. R. (2004). The contribution of Jan Tinbergen to economic science. *De Economist*, 152(2), 155–157. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:ECOT.0000023251.14849.4f>
- Lehmann, I., Martin, A., & Fisher, J. A. (2018). Why should ecosystem services be governed to support poverty alleviation? Philosophical perspectives on positions in the empirical literature. *Ecological Economics*, 149, 265–273. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2018.03.003>
- MacDonald, C. (2008). *Green Inc: An environmental insider reveals how a good cause has gone bad*. Guildford, CT: The Lyons Press.
- Mace, G. M. (2014). Whose conservation? *Science*, 345(6204), 1558–1560. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1254704>
- Martin, A. (2017). *Just conservation: Biodiversity, well-being and sustainability*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Martinez-Alier, J. (2002). *The environmentalism of the poor*. A Report for UNRISD for the WSSD, UNRISD.
- McKeown, B., & Thomas, D. (1998). *Q methodology*. London, UK: Sage.
- McShane, T. O., Hirsch, P. D., Trung, T. C., Songorwa, A. N., Kinzig, A., Monteferrri, B., ... O'Connor, S. (2010). Hard choices: Making trade-offs between biodiversity conservation and human well-being. *Biological Conservation*, 144(3), 966–972. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2010.04.038>
- MEA. (2005). *Millennium ecosystem assessment: Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis*. Washington, DC: MEA.
- Moran, D., & Kanemoto, K. (2017). Identifying species threat hotspots from global supply chains. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 1, 0023. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-016-0023>
- Redford, K. H., Levy, M. A., Sanderson, E. W., & de Sherbinin, A. (2008). What is the role for conservation organizations in poverty alleviation in the world's wild places? *Oryx*, 42(4), 516–528. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605308001889>
- Reuters. (2019). *Britain's charity commission investigates WWF UK abuse claims*. Reuters. Retrieved from <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-britain-charity-wwf/britains-charity-commission-investigates-wwf-uk-abuse-claims-idUSKCN1RG2HP>
- Robinson, J. (2004). Squaring the circle? Some thoughts on the idea of sustainable development. *Ecological Economics*, 48(4), 369–384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2003.10.017>
- Roe, D. (2008). The origins and evolution of the conservation-poverty debate: A review of key literature, events and policy processes. *Oryx*, 42(04), 491–503. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605308002032>
- Sandbrook, C., Fisher, J. A., Holmes, G., Luque-Lora, R., & Keane, A. (2019). The global conservation movement is diverse but not divided. *Nature Sustainability*, 2(4), 316–323. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-019-0267-5>
- Sandbrook, C. G., Fisher, J. A., & Vira, B. (2013). What do conservationists think about markets? *Geoforum*, 50, 232–240. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2013.09.009>
- Sandbrook, C., Scales, I. R., Vira, B., & Adams, W. M. (2010). Value plurality among conservation professionals. *Conservation Biology*, 25(2), 285–294. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2010.01592.x>
- Sanderson, S. E., & Redford, K. H. (2003). Contested relationships between biodiversity conservation and poverty alleviation. *Oryx*, 37(4), 389–390. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S003060530300070X>
- Soule, M. (2013). The 'new conservation'. *Conservation Biology*, 27(5), 895–897. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.12147>
- Stephenson, W. (1952). Q-methodology and the projective techniques. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 8(3), 219–229. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679\(195207\)8:3<219::Aid-jclp2270080302>3.0.Co;2-j](https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679(195207)8:3<219::Aid-jclp2270080302>3.0.Co;2-j)
- Stricklin, M., & Almeida, R. (2000). *PCQ analysis software for Q-technique. Computer software package and handbook*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska.
- Survival International. (2019). *The Baka*. Retrieved from <https://www.survivalinternational.org/tribes/bakamesokdja>
- Terborgh, J. (1999). *Requiem for nature*. Washington DC: Island Press.

- Walpole, M., & Wilder, L. (2008). Disentangling the links between conservation and poverty reduction in practice. *Oryx*, 42(04), 539–547. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605308000744>
- Watts, S., & Stenner, P. (2012). *Doing Q methodological research: Theory, method & interpretation*. London, UK: Sage.
- WCED. (1987). *Our common future*. World Commission on Environment and Development. Gro Harlem Brundtland. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Wilson, E. O. (1992). *The diversity of life*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wilson, E. O. (2016). *Half-earth: Our planet's fight for life*. New York, NY: Liveright Publishing Corporation.
- WWF. (2018). *Living planet report – 2018: Aiming higher*. M. Grooten, & R. E. A. Almond (Eds.). Gland, Switzerland: WWF.
- Zabala, A., Sandbrook, C., & Mukherjee, N. (2018). When and how to use Q methodology to understand perspectives in conservation research.

Conservation Biology, 32(5), 1185–1194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.13123>

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

How to cite this article: Fisher JA, Dhungana H, Duffy J, et al. Conservationists' perspectives on poverty: An empirical study. *People Nat*. 2020;00:1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pan3.10098>